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A RATIONALE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE.

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THIS POSITION PAPER EXAMINES THE NATURE AND PROBLEMS OF GUIDANCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND ENDS WITH THE STATEMENT OF A RATIONALE. LEARNING IS VIEWED AS THE CORE OF EDUCATION. ACCORDINGLY, THE LEARNING PROCESS INVOLVES THE BEHAVIOR TO BE LEARNED, THE LEARNER HIMSELF, AND THE CONDITIONS OF LEARNING. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE CAN ENHANCE THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT SO EACH PUPIL LEARNS TO THE BEST OF HIS ABILITY. HUMAN LEARNING, EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES, INSTRUCTION, AND THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE CHILD ARE DISCUSSED IN THEORETICAL TERMS, AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE SPECIALIST ARE EXAMINED. THE SCHOOL'S MAJOR CONCERN IS WITH NORMAL VARIANTS OF LEARNING AND THEIR BEHAVIORAL MANIFESTATIONS. THEREFORE, THE GUIDANCE SPECIALIST FUNCTIONS IN A PREVENTATIVE, RATHER THAN A REMEDIAL, MANNER. THE THREE MAJOR FUNCTIONS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE ARE CONSULTATION, COORDINATION, AND COUNSELING. (SK)

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A RATIONALE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

A statement on elementary school guidance prepared for publication

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PART I

A RATIONALE FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Introduction

Elementary school guidance may be considered the most recent member to the family of pupil personnel services in the public schools. Unlike the typical family addition, which is generally accepted with open arms, treated with affection and tenderness, valued for his uniqueness as an individual, respected for his real and anticipated contributions to family and community welfare, aided in his attempt to find his self-identity as he grows and develops into manhood, elementary school guidance struggles for its professional maturation in an atmosphere which seeks immediate answers relative to its nature, goals, and contributions. It is somewhat paradoxical that elementary school guidance should be expected to document precisely and accurately its raison d'etre in a profession that is basically concerned with growth and change through learning. Although open to question, there is some evidence already that this youngster has not not been accepted readily in the family of education. A few have rejected him simply because he could not provide complete and detailed "answers" to their questions. Some have punished him because he could not identify his basic nature while others thought his behavior unnecessary or thoughtless. He has been viewed as a professional rival by those who see him as one who may usurp their role and function in the group. He has been treated as an isolate by those who doubt that he can contribute anything unique or different to the family. Many have indicated that they would like to see what he can do but have not provided him with an opportunity to prove his worth.

On the other hand, the birth and emergence of elementary school guidance is very much akin to the childhood years in a family group. The young child, in growing toward manhood and in establishing his identity for himself and for others, experiences rejection, isolation, competition, control and domination. He begins to recognize and cope with the thinking and feeling involved in these and other behaviors. He learns, through his childhood and adolescent years, to express his own thoughts and feelings. In some measure, as a result of his own action and his interaction with others, he learns who he is.

In the same sense, then, elementary school guidance will establish its own identity. During these growing, developing, experiencing years, the elementary school guidance specialist will evolve, as a result of his action and interaction with others, an identity which represents his professional personality or character. Much of this image will stem from the formulation of his basic philosophical and psychological beliefs, and from the establishment of a theoretical or conceptual framework undergirding the nature of his work. A great deal of his behavior will be influenced by the objectives or goals which he identifies and accepts and by the procedures, practices, and techniques which he employes. In this way, then, the elementary school guidance specialist, like the youngster, expresses his own thoughts and feelings. In this process of living and working with others, he learns something about his own image, about the image he has created for others, and about the image others have created for him. He will need to acknowledge

the myriad of expectations and perceptions held by other professional educators. He will need to understand how these perceptual constellations can emerge in the behavior of his professional colleagues. It will be necessary for him to respond to and interpret these behaviors with regard to the structure and demands of the social milieu within which he functions.

The ability of the elementary school guidance specialist to recognize the interpersonal aspects of his functioning is far more important than the debate as to whether elementary school guidance is or is not accepted in the family of education. It is far more crucial to its future than the "telling and selling" of current vogue. Yet, its maturation is not simply a matter of "getting along with others." Effective and meaningful interpersonal relationships of a professional nature are the result of combining the man and the job, making sure that he understands, within human capabilities, as much about both as possible. This is not meant to imply that elementary school guidance programs should be left to evolve having no foundation or direction. Quite the contrary, they must have both a sound theoretical base and a well formulated plan of implementation. Each elementary school specialist will need to establishhis program basis as clearly and definitively as possible, and to define operationally his role and function. This will be necessary if he is to be understood, for being understood is complementary to developing responsible and professional interpersonal relationships.

As in any new professional endeavor, a variety of views and approaches have been expressed. Many impressions have been formed. It would seem that these initial efforts to inaugurate guidance in the elementary school have been organized around conceptualizations of, and experiences in, secondary school guidance. Much of the current practice in elementary school guidance reflects an adaptation and modification of secondary school guidance procedure for the elementary school <u>of today</u> (which may be quite different than the elementary school envisioned <u>for tomorrow</u>). Even the philosophical basis of these programs, though admittedly there is less vocational emphasis, seems to be basically problem-centered relying heavily on diagnostic processes and remediation. It is quite obvious that many who are employed in elementary school guidance today (and there are more than we have heretofore identified though many are psychologists, reading specialists, or psychometricians operating with titles of elementary school guidance personnel) have not established the basis of their program nor perhaps even examined the possibilities. Rather, they have identified and are using a cluster of practices and techniques which appear to be successful in meeting the problems of children in the elementary school and in servicing a variety of unmet demands which the instructional, administrative, or other pupil personnel specialists do not have the time to meet. We might, then, characterize a good deal of the elementary school guidance of today as a downward extension of secondary school guidance with an almost <u>exclusive</u> focus on the problems of the elementary school child and their treatment.

It is not difficult to find dissatisfaction with the elementary school as it is currently serving boys and girls. Manolakes, in a bulletin of the Commission on Elementary Curriculum of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, writes:

> "With few exceptions, the elementary school of today, . . . continues to be organized primarily for the teaching of subjects. . . . Many goals of the elementary school that reflect a concern for children have been regarded as pious platitudes and have been supported only as far as the objective of teaching subjects permits."[1]

Although it may be unwise to generalize, the highly subject-centered program of the elementary school has resulted in a commitment to teaching knowledge rather than children, has emphasized the extrinsic to the exclusion of the intrinsic, and has maximized the cognitive, particularly the knowledge aspects, while minimizing the affective (the internal).

If we are to keep our commitments to society, then it behooves us to use our present knowledge and forge ahead. This means innovation, change, progress! It means experimentation, adaptation, successes, and failures. At times it may require forthright, bold, venturesome behavior. Educators, for the most part in the past, have been slow, exceedingly so, to attack their shortcomings for fear of upsetting the community or the parents or, maybe, themselves. It would seem, however, that the time is ripe for change!

Elementary school guidance will have an opportunity to contribute significantly to the changes in education in the years ahead.

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[1]George Manolakes, The Elementary School We Need. Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965 p. 3.

To do so, however, the present focus on the remedial must shift to the preventative. Guidance personnel, instead of being "fix-it-uppers" and "distributors" will become agents of innovation and change. This, then, requires a "new look" at the job, the man, and the program that prepares him for it.

A Statement of the Rationale for Elementary School Guidance

Learning is the core of education. It is the center, the hub, of all that occurs within the school. The process of learning involves the tripartite considerations of (1) the behaviors to be learned; (2) the learner, in this case the elementary school child, and his ability to cope with the learning tasks established for him; and (3) the conditions of his learning, that is, the school and the personnel who will create the learning environment and establish the climate in which the learning process occurs.

Contributing to the establishment of the behaviors to be learned are the general objectives of education and the more specific educational goals as represented by the various desired or intended outcomes in the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of human learning and behavior. These provide directon to the learning process. These directions are implemented through the establishment of an instructional program. There are distinguishing characteristics and features of instruction which can be used as guides in establishing the pattern and sequence of the learning experience. The instructional program may be viewed as normative and prescriptive since it is developed to identify the most effective routes to learning. It is concerned with the identification of basic concepts

and principles in any area of learning which will lead the learner to discover other meanings and relationships. Teaching involves the day-to-day activities designed to facilitate learning and to help the learner to achieve these intended behaviors.

The learner, the elementary school child, is the object of these planned learnings. His educational experiences must take into consideration the physical, intellectual, and emotional aspects of his growth and development. Consideration must be given to the types of experiences with which the normal child can deal effectively in the various stages of his development and, of equal importance, to his reaction to these experiences. The learner, then, must be viewed not only in terms of his uniqueness but in terms of his "wholeness." Any phase of his development or any facet of his behavior must be considered in relation to his total pattern and life style as they affect his needs, his values, and his internal well-being, as well as his external behavior and progress in the group.

The conditions of learning reflect, essentially, the manner in which the behaviors to be learned (the instructional program) and the learner (the child),and all that these entail, are combined. In bringing these together, many things occur. The tenor of learning situations, the environment of the school, and the psychological atmosphere of the classroom should be considered vital elements of the learning process. The influence of teacher behavior and classroom social interaction are illustrative of other factors affecting the learning environment. The school, the setting of

the educational experience, can be considered as a network of social relationships comprising a social system as intricate as any within society. The phenomena of the school as an institution, as an organization of individuals, must be recognized and understood. Teaching-learning occurs within this social milieu. In viewing instruction, teaching, and learning, it is importaht to consider the effect of this system on individual and group role and function, and net effect of these on the atmosphere of the school and classroom.

Teaching is an act which should be dynamic and personalized -- not rote and mechanized. Teaching is the process whereby the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains of learning can be developed, integrated with other learnings and internalized so that the learner can establish his self-identity and piece together the meaning of learning for his own existence and life style.

The central function of elementary school guidance is to enhance and improve the learning environment of the school to the end that each pupil in the elementary school has an opportunity to learn to the best of his capacity. In working toward this goal, the elementary school guidance specialist relates to various members of the school staff (administrators, teachers, and other pupil personnel specialists), parents, and pupils in providing assistance pertinent to maximizing the learning situation and to effecting efforts which will utilize to the best advantage of the child, the resources and information available in the home, school, and community.

Skill in interpersonal relations is an essential competency of the elementary school guidance specialist in order that his knowledge,

insights, and understandings can become beneficial and functional to the pupil and the school staff. Regardless of whether one chooses to examine the work of the elementary school guidance specialist in relation to services (assistance to pupils, assistance to parents, etc.) or in relation to counselor responsibilities (pupil counseling, collection of pupil data, test interpretation, etc.), interpersonal relations skills are an essential attribute of the elementary school guidance specialist, particularly as they relate to their numerous functions of a counseling, coordinating, or consulting nature.

The functions of the elementary school guidance specialist represent the role and responsibilities which he assumes in applying his knowledge in the work setting. Considering that many of his functions are of an interpersonal nature and involve counseling, coordinating, and consulting, the guidance specialist's own understanding of his approach to people, and the relationship of these are often the determining factors of his effectiveness in working with others, in establishing his role, and in using his knowledge to carry out his functions.

SOME THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Human Learning As an Inner Process

Learning has been defined as:

> "1. Scholarship, the possession of knowledge and critical judgment, especially in a particular field or discipline; 2. A highly general term for the relatively enduring change, in response to a task demand, that is induced directly by experience, or the process or processes whereby such change is brought about; 3. Learning is manifested by performance, and all performance is dependent in part on learning, but the two are not identical.
>
> "Learning is inferred from performance and the conditions antecedent to performance."[2]

Most definitions of learning are concerned in some way with the phenomena of "change" and "process." Learning, or education, is a process involving serveral features or stages: content (the selection of the task demands); form (the direction and structure); order (the arrangement and sequence); rate (the timing and pacing); transfer (learning manipulation, conversion or transformation); and adequacy (testing and evaluation). These may occur progressively or concomitantly. Human learning, then, may be considered in relation to this process and its capacity to effect change in human behavior. Human learning is more than the accumulation of knowledge to be stored in the human mind and regurgitated. It is more than the mastery of a skill to be repeated. Human learning may be considered an inner process in which the individual assimilates his experiences, internalizing his learnings, in a fashion which takes on meaning for him. Gradually, and over a period of time, each individual integrates these internalized learnings into a pattern significant to himself and useful to him in dealing with life situations. Through a combination of the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor components of learning, the individual establishes a self-identity and the

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[2]Horace B. English and Ava English. A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1958. p. 293.

ability to interrelate and regulate the self and the self-in-situation. This is human behavior -- the result of human learning.

The Objectives of Education

Education is concerned with human behavior. It has established goals or objectives designed to influence and affect the direction and meaning of human existence. One of the most commonly cited statements of objectives for American education was contained in The Purposes of Education in American Democracy.[3] Four groups of educational objectives were established dealing with (1) self-realization; (2) human relationship; (3) economic efficiency; and (4) civic responsibility. They make clear that one should not quarter-section education but rather think of these purposes "as a series of four vantage points from which the purposes of education may be studied, the total result being a comprehensive view of the whole."[4] Although these statements have been further delineated and refined in the intervening years, their basic meaning has remained. Their influence on American education must be recognized. However, as is often the case with such general statements of purpose, their individual meaning, as well as their interrelationship, are often lost or subverted in day-to-day activities. To the extent that this occurs, such statements can become platitudinous. To this extent they are no longer a significant part of the learning process and have little, if any, impact on human behavior.

Yet, this need not occur. Rather one needs simply to progress

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[3]Educational Policies Commission, The Purposes of Education in American Democracy. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1938. p. 157.

[4]Ibid., p. 47

from these general purposes of education to those more specifically oriented for the elementary school. In a report prepared for the Mid-Century Committee on Outcomes in Elementary Education, Kearney outlines the following recommended goals for the elementary schools: (1) physical development, health, and body care; (2) individual social and emotional development; (3) ethical behavior, standards, values; (4) social relations; (5) the social world (the child in relation to society); (6) the physical world (the child in relation to his environment with emphasis on scientific thinking and methods of science); (7) esthetic development; (8) communication; (9) quantitative relationships.[5] One can find other similar statements of purpose for elementary education. It is not the intent here to assess the appropriateness of any specific set of goals, but rather to show the logicity with which one uses such statements to guide his professional work. The task of the elementary school is, then, to implement these goals year-to-year, month-to-month, and day-to-day.

These broad goals of public education and the more specific objectives of elementary education will be achieved only to the extent that the instructional program of a school can provide specific and meaningful learning experiences. The instructional program of the school may be thought of as the bridge between the objectives or goals of education; that is, those behaviors that are considered desirable outcomes of the learning process and the child, the learner, the object of instruction, and the one who is engaged in the processes of learning.

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[5]Nolan C. Kearney, Elementary School Objectives. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1953. pp. 52-113.

The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain[6] and Handbook II: Affective Domain[7] offer assistance to all educators in providing a classification of educational goals. With the help of the Taxonomy, they can clarify and refine specific instructional objectives. This is not an easy task, but it does make it possible to plan and organize learning experiences which are specifically designed to give direction to the learning process and to provide for the consequences of the learning experience through anticipated or expected behavioral outcomes. The first domain, the cognitive, "includes those objectives which deal with the recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills."[8] Such behaviors as remembering, reasoning, problem solving, concept formation and creative thinking are divided, subdivided, and classified from the simplest to the most complex.[9] They later add, "the behaviors in the cognitive domain are largely characterized by a high degree of consciousness on the part of the individual exhibiting the behavior . . . .Further, in the cognitive domain especially, it appears that as the behaviors become more complex, the individual is more aware of their existence."[10]

The second domain, the affective, "includes objectives which describe changes in interest, attitudes, and values, and the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment."[11] In examining the

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[6]Benjamin S. Bloom, Editor, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives Handbook I: Cognitive Domain. New York: David McKay Company, 1956.

[7]David R. Karthwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram B. Masia, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay Company, 1964.

[8]Bloom, op. cit., p. 7.

[9]Ibid., p. 15.

[10]Ibid., p. 19.

[11]Bloom, loc. cit.

components of affective behavior, they suggest a continuum progressing from the simple awareness of a phenomenon or value to the more complex syndrome wherein a phenomenon, or series of phenomena, have been organized into a system of beliefs or values controlling the behavior of the individual. This latter end of the continuum represents the personal characteristics and credo of the individual.

This continuum was established around the concept of "internalization" which is described in Handbook II: Affective Domain as follows:

> "The process begins when the attention of a student is captured by some phenomenon, characteristic, or value. As he pays attention to the phenomenon, characteristic, or value, he differentiates it from the others present in the perceptual field. With differentiation comes a seeking out of the phenomena as he gradually attaches emotional significance to it and comes to value it. As the process unfolds, he relates this phenomenon to other phenomena to which he responds that also have value. This responding is sufficiently frequent so that he comes to react regularly, almost automatically, to it and to other things like it. Finally the values are interrelated in a structure or view of the world, which he brings as a "set" to new problems."[12]

It is interesting to note that the authors make a point to distinguish between the terms "internalization" and "socialization." They state:

> "This definition (English and English's concept of socialization) suggests that the culture is perceived as the controlling force in the individual's actions. It is true that the internalization of the prevailing values of the culture describes the bulk of contemporary objectives. But it is equally true that our schools, in their roles as developers of individualism and as change agents in the culture, are not solely concerned with conformity. Internalization as defined in the Taxonomy provides

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[12]Krathwohl, op. cit., p. 33.

> equally for the development of both conformity and non-conformity, as either role pervades individual behavior. The term "internalization," by referring to the process through which values, attitudes, etc. in general are acquired, is thus broader than socialization, which refers only to the acceptance of the contemporary value pattern of the society."[13]

It is doubtful if much attention has been given to the affective behavior of boys and girls as related to any level of education. The authors suggest that despite research findings to the contrary "there still persists an implicit belief that if cognitive objectives are developed, there will be a corresponding development of appropriate affective behaviors . . . . The evidence suggests that affective behaviors develop when appropriate learning experiences are provided for students much the same as cognitive behaviors develop from appropriate learning experiences."[14] In addition to the lack of precision and focus on the affective objectives, Karthwohl, et. al. note that even when a concerted effort is made to deal with the affective domain in statements of objectives ". . . there is a characteristic type of <u>erosion</u> in which the original intent of a course or educational program becomes worn down to that which can be explicitly evaluated for grading purposes and that which can be taught easily through verbal methods (lectures, discussions, reading materials, etc.). There is a real shift in intent that comes with time."[15]

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[13] <u>Ibid</u>., pp. 29-30.

[14] <u>Ibid</u>., p. 20.

[15] <u>Ibid</u>., p. 16.

The third domain, the psychomotor, deals with "objectives which emphasize some muscular or motor skill, some manipulation of material or objects, or some act which requires a neuromuscular coordination."[16] This domain remains to be developed but will be added hopefully to the Taxonomy in the future.

Instruction - Teaching - Learning

The implementation of these objectives remains with that complex triumvirate -- instruction, teaching, and learning. As a coalition, they are difficult concepts with which to deal. Their differentiation and their reciprocity have been debated for some time. It is not the purpose here to identify minutely the distinguishing features of any one or all of these concepts and their relationship is obvious. Rather, it is intended to indicate the general nature of all three, their relationship to the attainment of the goals established for education, and the significant conditions and contributions of each in directing and influencing student behavior.

Instruction has been defined as "the systematic imparting of knowledge to others."[17] English and English also cite "teaching" as a synonym. Eisner defines instruction "as those activities that are consciously planned and executed by the teacher which are intended to move the pupils toward the attainment of the educational objectives held by the teacher."[18]

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[16]Ibid., p. 7.

[18]Eliot W. Eisner, "Instruction, Teaching, and Learning: An Attempt at Differentiation." The Elementary School Journal, 65:118, December, 1964.

[17]H. English and A. English, op. cit., p. 266.

Teaching has been defined by English and English as "the act of assisting another to learn. It includes the providing of information (instruction) and of appropriate situations, conditions, or activities designed to facilitate learning."[19]

Eisner describes teaching as follows:

> "Teaching activities might be described as that portion of instructional activities which is effective in moving pupils toward the attainment of educational objectives and which, therefore, results in learning. Teaching is what occurs when teachers by virtue of their instructional activities succeed wholly or in part in enabling pupils to learn."[20]

Learning. English and English define "learn" as

> "to change one's way of activity, to acquire information, to be able to respond to a task demand or environmental pressure in a different way as a result of earlier response to the same task (practice), or as a result of intervening relevant experience."[21]

Eisner views learning in a broader sense when he states,

> "for much of the learning that occurs in the classroom is not the result of instruction. Pupils learn much that the teacher never intends to be learned. Indeed, most learning occurs without a teacher or instruction. It seems likely that only a small portion of what pupils learn in school is due to the teacher's instructional activities."[22]

In differentiating among instruction, teaching, and learning, it would appear that one might distinguish them on the basis of

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[19]H. English and A. English, op. cit., p. 544

[20]Eisner, op. cit., p. 119

[21]H. English and A. English, op. cit., p. 289

[22]Eisner, loc. cit.

their relationship to the process of education, or human learning. Instruction might be characterized as the systematic, planned, intended aspects of the process and, therefore, would be concerned mainly with the content, form, and order of learning experiences. Thus, instruction would involve the selection of the educational objectives to be achieved and the direction, structure, arrangement, and sequencing of the instructional activities to attain the desired behavioral outcomes. Many of the efforts of instruction, then, may occur independent of the learner. Instruction may attempt to pass on the heritage but it should not impose it. It may encourage the spirit of tradition but it should not resist change. Insofar as it does not impose specific behaviors on the learner, it cultivates individualism. Insofar as it does not resist change, it encourages creativity and promotes curiosity. Insofar as it is concerned with the development of individuals, it provides for both conformity and nonconformity. To the extent that it is able to provide for a variety of individual behaviors, it fosters change.

Teaching engages the learner in the process of education. It involves the execution of those activities which will produce the intended or desired behavioral outcomes. It is concerned primarily with the rate, transfer, and adequacy of the learning experiences. It involves providing the conditions, situations, and activities for the learner, adjusting the pacing and sequencing of the learning experiences, aiding the learner in transfer manipulations leading to the application of learning in new ways and in other forms, and assisting the learner to explore and test the adequacy of his learning. Teaching is not shaping, directing, or controlling; but rather leading, exploring, and discovering. Teaching, then, is an

activity which should be dynamic and personalized; not rote and mechanized. Teaching not only encourages creativity and promotes curiosity, it actualizes these by providing opportunities for spontaneous pupil exploration, by creating challenging tasks and by encouraging individuality. Teaching is that activity whereby the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor components of human learning can be developed and integrated so that the learner can piece together his self-identity and the meaning of his existence.

To the extent that learning results in change, it is possible to define learning as the product of instruction and teaching. Yet, not all learning is planned. Learning may result from unplanned experiences both in and peripheral to the school and classroom. Learning may occur, as well, from the combination of planned and unplanned experiences, the resultant behaviors being neither intended nor anticipated. Human learning seems to be a personal and dynamic phenomenon in which the process rather than the product, or goal, is the essence of the experience. The continuing nature of learning, the increasing complicity of personal meanings and the many and varied transfer manipulations are evidence of the highly individual, dynamic character of learning.

Learning, then, seems to be characterized by an ever-changing warehouse of personal perceptions and meanings which are constantly being restructured. As new relationships are established, shifts in behavior are noted. The adequacy of any learning is constantly under individual surveillance and its longevity as a guidepost to human behavior is subject to its relative position and priority in the individual's inner learning hierarchy.

Recent accelerated efforts to examine and separate these three concepts are moving education to investigate their nature and characteristics, and their relationship to the whole process of education. Learning theory has, to a large degree, dictated the direction of teaching and instruction. Much of this theory has not been concerned with human learning and little investigation and experimentation with the process of human learning have been undertaken in the school. There is a growing interest in developing theories of instruction and teaching. There is an increasing awareness of human learning as an inner process.

Bruner has identified some characteristics of instruction and his efforts represent one of the more deliberate, yet incomplete, attempts to develop a theory of instruction. He characterizes a theory of instruction as follows:

> "A theory of instruction is <u>prescriptive</u> in the sense that it sets forth rules concerning the most effective way of achieving knowledge or skill. By the same token, such a theory provides a yardstick for criticizing or evaluating any particular way of teaching or learning.
>
> "A theory of instruction is a <u>normative</u> theory. It sets up criteria and states the conditions for meeting them . . . . A theory of instruction . . . is concerned with how best to learn what one wishes to teach, with improving, rather than describing learning.
>
> "This is not to say that learning and developmental theories are irrelevant to a theory of instruction. In fact, a theory of instruction must be concerned with both learning and development, as well as with the nature of particular subject matter; and there must be congruence among the various theories, all of which have a complementary relation to each other."[23]

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[23]Jerome S. Bruner, "Some Theories on Instructions Illustrated with Reference to Mathematics," <u>Theories of Learning and Instruction</u>. The Sixty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. pp. 306-7.

It is probably true that instructional theory can be prescriptive and normative. It should identify the basic concepts and principles for any given subject matter area that can lead an individual to discover other meanings and relationships. Yet, such prescription merely provides a basis for the instructional activity. It does not impinge upon the individual child's right to sort out the meaning of his experiences for himself and to transfer his learning experiences to his own life style and goals. This is learning! It is with this "sorting and sifting" that the teacher can be effective in dealing the objectives of education. This is teaching!

Bruner posits four major features of a theory of instruction. In discussing the first of these, Bruner states, "A theory of instruction should specify the experiences which most effectively implant in the individual a predisposition toward learning -- learning in a general or a particular type of learning."[24] Anything we can do to improve pupil motivation, to encourage exploration, to develop attitudes of inquiry and to nurture curiosity and creativity should be encouraged. Certainly, we have not reached the utmost with these in education today. Rather, we have hardly scratched the surface. In fact, if one "hears" the American teen-ager, if one really examines the high school drop-out figures, one might ponder about the difference between the eager, inquisitive five-year

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[24] Ibid., pp. 309-13

old entering kindergarten and the discouraged, indifferent sixteen year old drop-out. Surely, the difference cannot be explained on the basis of individual differences and home environment alone. It could be that such factors as the school environment, the classroom atmosphere, the teacher's behavior, the meaningless nature of many learning experiences, the lack of attention to the relationship of the cognitive-affective components of learning or inability to accept and deal with learning variants have contributed their toll.

The second of Bruner's features deals with the structure and form of knowledge. Bruner says

> "Any idea or problem or body of knowledge can be presented in a form simple enough so that any particular learner can understand it.
>
> "The structure of knowledge may be characterized in three ways, each affecting the ability of any learner to master it: (a) the mode of representation in which it is put; (b) its economy; and (c) its effective power. Mode, economy, and power vary in appropriateness to different ages, to different "sytles" among learners, and to the differences between subject matters."[25]

Perhaps mathematics will not be the only subject matter area to get a complete overhaul. It is quite possible that in future years, as we become more knowledgable about the human intellect and the processes of thinking and reasoning, we will not only revise the curriculum but institute programs of instruction which emphasize quite different approaches to thinking and learning. Some of the research, such as the work of Guilford and Piaget are suggestive of the new directions which might be charted.

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[25] Ibid., pp. 309-13

However bright or doubtful the future may be, however uncertain the course may be,we can launch the excursion using the fragmentary research we have currently at our disposal.

The third feature of Bruner's theory of instruction is concerned with sequence and its uses.[26] The sequencing of the instructional matter will, according to Bruner, "depend upon a variety of factors, including past learning, stage of development, nature of the material, and individual differences."[27] His last feature, the form and pacing of reinforcement, deals with the nature and timing of rewards and punishments.[28]

This feature raises many interesting questions. On what basis do we assign marks? What blocks to learning are caused simply by our present system of rewards and punishment? It is quite possible that our present system of grading (which is quite obviously perceived by teachers, parents, and pupils alike as a reward-punishment) tends to dominate the whole instructional program. It can be, and often is, used to get the child to put forth effort -- to work. In this sense, it is intended as a motivating experience. The repetitive lessons, the extensive reviews, and the "drill",so commonly employed, are evidence of the rote, recall, actual emphases of present day instruction. One wonders to what extent this inhibits thinking, stifles creativity, and routinizes problem-solving activities for boys and girls. Further, one conjectures

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[26]Ibid., pp. 313-14.

[27]Ibid., p. 313.

[28]Ibid., pp. 314-19.

about the increased anxiety, stress, and conflict caused by such instructional straight jackets and the effect of this on the achievement of the affective, as well as the cognitive, objectives.

It would appear that the "few simple theorems about the nature of instruction" which Bruner suggests, offer a host of challenges and invite a"new look" not only at instruction and teaching but at the process of human learning.

Teaching, too, is being examined more closely. Gage has pointed to the difference between theories of learning and theories of teaching and documents the need for theories of teaching -- the development of which has been neglected.[29]

In a recent article, Scheffler characterizes teaching

> "as an activity aimed at the achievement of learning, and practiced in such manner as to respect the student's intellectual integrity and capacity for independent judgment. Such a characterization is important for two reasons. First, it brings out the intentional nature of teaching, the fact that teaching is a distinctive goal-oriented activity, rather than a distinctively patterned sequence of behavioral steps executed by the teacher. Secondly, it differentietes the activity of teaching from such other activities as propaganda, conditioning, suggestion, and indoctrination, which are aimed at modifying the person but strive at all costs to avoid genuine engagement of his judgment on underlying issues."[30]

Scheffler goes on to define three models: the <u>impression</u> model, in which the ". . . desired end result of teaching is an accumulation

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[29]N. L. Gage, "Theories of Teaching," <u>Theories of Learning and Instruction</u>, the Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. pp. 268-85.

[30]Israel Scheffler, "Philosophical Models of Teaching," <u>Harvard Educational Review</u>. 35+131. Spring, 1965.

in the learner of basic elements fed in from without, organized and processed in standard ways but, in any event, not generated by the learner himself;"[31] the *insight* model, in which

> ". . . knowledge . . . is a matter of vision, and vision cannot be dissected into elementary sensory or verbal units that can be conveyed from one person to another. . . . It is vision, or insight into meaning, which makes the crucial difference between simply storing and reproducing learned sentences, on the one hand, and understanding their basis and application, on the other."[32]

the *rule* model, in which

> ". . . the primary philosophical emphasis is on reason, and reason is always a matter of abiding by general rules or principles . . . . Whether in the cognitive or the moral realm, reason is always a matter of treating equal reasons equally, and of judging the issues in the light of general principles to which one has bound oneself.
>
> ". . . The concepts of *principles*, *reasons*, and *consistency* thus go together and they apply both in the cognitive judgment of beliefs and the moral assessment of conduct.
>
> ". . . In contrast to the insight model, the rule model clearly emphasizes the role of principles in the exercise of cognitive judgment. . . .
>
> "Nor does the rule model in any way deny the psychological phenomenon of insight. It merely stresses that insight itself, wherever it is relevant to decision or judgment, is filtered through a network of background principles. It brings out thereby that insight is not an isolated, momentary, or personal matter, that the growth of knowledge is not to be construed as a personal interaction between students, but rather as mediated by general principles definitive of rationality.
>
> ". . . the rule model embraces *conduct* as well as cognition, itself broadly conceived as including processes of judgment and deliberation. Teaching . . . should be geared not simply to the transfer of information nor even to the development of insight, but to the inculcation of principled judgment and conduct, the building of autonomous and rational character which underlies the enterprises of science, morality, and culture."[33]

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[31] *Ibid.*, p. 132.

[32] *Ibid.*, p. 135.

[33] *Ibid.*, pp. 139-141.

Teaching, on the other hand, particularly in the r ulg model, is concerned with the manner in which the child is reac ting in both the cognitive and affective domains. Obviously, i n teaching, both the teacher and the child are involved in the proc ess, since the teacher both <u>thinks</u> and <u>feels</u> as he teaches as well as the student. To assume that the teacher does or can attend to <u>all</u> these individual facets of human learning is to expect too much of the teacher. To anticipate that all children deal effectively with all their learning experiences is to expect too much of children. But we can assume and anticipate these normal learning <u>variants</u>. And, further, an adequate program of instruction and good teaching will account for and deal with them.

Planning and developing the instructional program, the teaching process and the directions of pupil learning involve the underestanding, efforts, and considerations of many different people. In combination, it represents the school's attempt to accomplish its objectives. Very often the program is imposed upon the school through required courses of study, exacting syllabi materials or by measuring instruments (standardized examinations) which tend to limit the diversity and creativity which might otherwise occur. That this does frequently happen is unfortunate. However, despite these restrictions and outside prescriptions, there are many possibilities for the application of new research -- for educational innovation in the classrooms of our schools. The elementary school guidance specialist, with his knowledge and understanding of human learning as an inner process and the relationship of this process to instruction and

teaching, can assist greatly in enhancing the school's ability to provide more dynamic and worthwhile learning experiences. He can assist school personnel in understanding, interpreting, and using the normal learning variants to improve and extend the learning activity of the school. Within this spectrum of educational endeavor, the guidance specialist's efforts can be considered preventative.

The Psychology of the Child

The public school is committed to the education of all children. The school, through the combination of instruction-teaching-learning, provides for the growth and development of the child. It does not interfere with the home nor does it attempt to inculcate purposely values, attitudes, or a style of life that are contrary to the typical traditions and culture of the American home. It does not supersede the home but rather complements and implements, in terms of the objectives and goals of education, the learning experiences of the child in his community and in his home. The school is concerned with the child -- his physical, intellectual, and emotional growth toward adulthood in a mature and satisfying way. It is concerned with his developmental needs; it provides opportunities for him to deal with tasks of learning which are consistent with his needs and abilities.

These goals and concerns of education lead to some basic assumptions about the education of children in the elementary school.

1. It is concerned with <u>all</u> children.

2. It is concerned with the normal growth and development of children as individuals including both the psychological and physiological aspects.

3. Children grow and develop at differing rates, and as they do so, they relate differently to different life and learning situations.

4. The elementary school child needs an environment which will allow him to experience in a variety of ways how he is growing and learning, and that will allow him to react to these experiences by expressing himself as an individual.

5. The elementary school child, in developing an image of himself as a person, will become aware of himself as an individual as he is provided environmental experiences which will permit him to examine his behavior and his interaction with others.

6. The elementary school child, in the process of learning and living, will experience stress and conflict and other forms of normal anxiety. The developmental strains are faced daily by the child at home and in the classroom as a result of his interaction with his teachers, peers, parents, and other adults.

These become most meaningful when translated into school policy and instructional methodology. Understanding the child and his development is essential in bringing together the things to be learned (the instructional program) and the learner (the child). In bringing these two together, with consideration of the basic assumptions previously stated, a wide variety of individual behaviors result. The learner, then, must be viewed not only in terms of his uniqueness, but in terms of his "wholeness." Any phase of his development or any facet of his behavior must be considered in relation to his total pattern and life style as they affect his needs, values and aspirations, his internal well-being, as well as his external behavior and progress in the group.

The School As a Social System

The school, within which the planned, and many of the unplanned phases of education occur, is the setting for the learning experience. This is a simple statement and, for the most part, has been considered as simple and naive as it sounds. Yet, the phenomena of the elementary school as an institution, as an organization of individuals, as a network of social relationships, as a social system, with its chief variable being the educative function, has seldom been recognized and very seldom understood. The sociological concepts affecting the total school organization and its operation are too numerous to detail. Matters of administration, leadership, control, and authority are very often more significantly related to the quality of teaching and to the learning environment than are the materials available or teaching methods employed. Questions of positional power and status are likely to inhibit communication or the exercise of positive educational innovations. The system can devoid its own progress, it can inhibit pupil learning, it can establish barriers to learning that contradict its very existence. Roles within the institution result from the established expectations but they also relfect the personalities of the incumbents. Roles within institutions are also complementary. These roles and role relationships comprise the structure of the school and, to a large degree, determine its general educational environment. The classroom, although only a unit of the institution, may likewise be considered as a social system, for within its confines the same sociological dynamics are operating. The

conditions of learning, then, are not necessarily the sole product of the instructional program or of the teaching activity. They may just as well be affected by the system -- the total school or the classroom.

The Concept of Learning Variants

The combination of broadly stated educational objectives, the specific objectives of elementary education and the classification of educational goals into the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains provide sufficient direction for the learning process. From these statements, it is possible to deduce the desired or intended behaviors which will result from the learning experiences planned for boys and girls. It is not possible, nor desirable, to control completely the inner manner in which the learner will assimilate, internalize, and integrate his learnings. It is not possible to foresee the inner meaning which various learning experiences will have for any learner. It is not possible to predict the combinations of manipulations which the learner will employ in converting, interrelating, or transferring his learnings to other tasks and other situations. These individual internalizations, meanings, and combinations of transfer manipulations, the inner process of human learning, constitute the learning variants of the learning process. He can only be directed to those learning experiences which are felt to be most helpful to him as an individual and to the society in which he will live.

It is obvious that there are many opportunities to plan and provide for improved learning experiences for boys and girls.

It is equally evident that not all these learnings will unfold or develop consistently, uniformly, or regularly with all pupils. The school should be prepared to deal with a host of normal learning differences and with a variety of normal learning irregularities -- the normal learning variants. It is with these variants, as they result from the educational objectives or goals, the instructional program, the teaching, the school, or even the child himself, that the elementary school guidance specialist is concerned. The variants of learning are normal, everyday occurrences. They stem from the human aspects of learning, from the human aspects of teaching!

Education is not a stable, static process. Although education is normatively based, the resultant learnings are not routinely normal. Education should be a dynamic, growing, changing process. Resultant learnings should vary widely; should lead the learners in many directions, not just one; and should individualize behavior rather than conform it. It is within this social and educational milieu that the school has concern for the normal variants of educating individuals. This, then, forms the basis for the preventative functioning of the elementary school guidance specialist.

The concept of normal learning variants has implications for the construction of the curriculum; the general learning environment of the school; the individual teacher's classroom climate; faculty understanding of the cognitive processes as related to teaching and learning; the "internalization" of the affective objectives; and the interrelationship of cognitive and affective objectives.

Very often, in fact with more frequency than educators care to admit, the educative process breaks down. This results from a variety of causes: poor teaching; an inadequate classroom climate; lack of pupil motivation; teacher domination; inadequate attention to individual differences; unrealistic instructional goals; pupil rejection. One could enumerate many other causes for ineffective learning. When these occasions occur, a number of specialists, mainly those of the pupil personnel services, are called upon to assist with remedial phases of individual behavior affecting the learning process. These workers are concerned, in the main, with those problems of a deviant nature. Difficulties in reading, speech, character disorders, and health problems are typical of the deviant concerns of such personnel as the reading consultant, the speech therapist, the school psychologist, or school nurse-teacher.

The elementary school guidance specialist is concerned with the learning of boys and girls and the conditions in which the learning process occurs. He is concerned with the behavioral outcomes of learning, particularly as these contribute to the ability of the learner to gain self-identity and to deal with self-in-situation. He is concerned with the variants of learning and their behavioral manifestations, as well as their inner meaning for the child.

In carrying out the various tasks which stem from these primarily preventative concerns, the guidance specialist may work with all members of the school staff -- administrators, curriculum coordinators, instructional supervisors, helping teachers and

classroom teachers. In establishing his role and carrying his functions, he is apt to encounter role conflict with any of these professional colleagues. This has not occurred to any extent to date for the simple reason that the preparation, experience, and focus of the elementary school guidance specialist has not been directed toward the preventative realm of pupil learning. In the years ahead, as this aspect of elementary school guidance work is further delineated and explored, many discussions will ensue in an attempt to clarify the interdependence and complementary aspects of the roles and functions involved.

The elementary school guidance specialist works also with other pupil personnel specialists in the identification and rehabilitation of the educationally deviant. Since this aspect of his attention is closely allied with the remedial aspects of his concern for pupil learning, and is largely the direction of most efforts in elementary school guidance today, the conflict of role and function with such other pupil personnel specialists as the school psychologist or the school social worker has become obvious already. Although conflicting roles and functions at this end of the educational continuum will also need to be clarified and their interdependence and complementary aspects established, less attention to and concern for these areas of conflict may emerge as the focus of elementary school guidance moves from the remedial to the preventative.

The Elementary School Guidance Specialist and His Preparation

The three main functions of elementary school guidance -- consulting, coordinating, and counseling -- will require personnel who are well informed and astute; who are aware of themselves as

individuals in the process of becoming; who are sensitive to their own needs and feelings and to those of others; who are objective, open, and willing to adapt or change as situations dictate; and who, in view of multitudinous aspects of any given situation, are capable of making sound judgments.

The instructional program for preparing the elementary school guidance specialist should encompass two years or 60 semester hours. In accomplishing this program, the candidate should have a number of experiences which will provide him with ample opportunity to explore and integrate both the theoretical and practical aspects of the field. This would be best accomplished through a combination of courses accompanied by a series of more progressively involved on-campus and off-campus experiences. These experiences which might be termed trial-exploratory, practicum, and field should permit the candidate to relate theory and practice by observing the "real" and the "ideal" and by applying their knowledge, understandings, and skills in work situations.

The substantive areas which should be included in a program of preparation for elementary school guidance personnel are outlined briefly in the sections that follow. It should be assumed that appropriate practical experiences of a trial-exploratory, practicum, and field nature would accompany each area of instruction and that the total program would be integrated through a well-designed field experience in the second year.